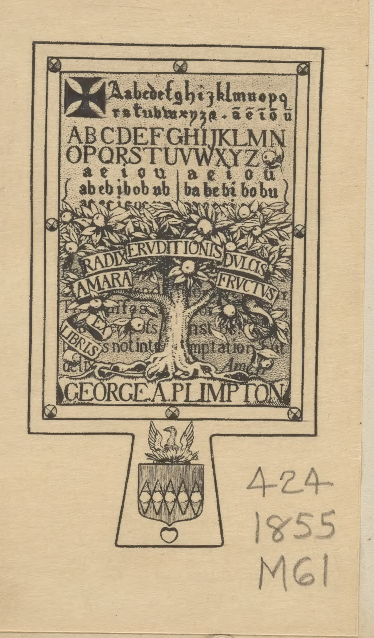
MILLAR'S

OUTLINES OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PRICE SIXPENCE.

W. H. Wells.


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OUTLINES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

ARRANGED FOR BEING

TAUGHT ON THE INTELLECTUAL SYSTEM.

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PREFACE.

THE design of the author in preparing the following pages has been, to furnish a Manual of Grammar, conveniently arranged for the use of those who adopt the Intellectual Method of Teaching.

It is intended that these Outlines should be literally a Text-Book, affording a *basis* on which the teacher may found, and a *system* whereby he may conduct, in progressive order, his *viva voce* instructions.

As the Reasoning Powers, rather than the Memory of the Pupil, are intended to be exercised in using this book, it is not advisable that any part of the definitions, or rules, should be prescribed as a task to be committed to memory; especially as these are more *thoroughly* learned by their *application* than by their *committal.*

EDINBURGH, 1*st October*, 1855.

OUTLINES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

(1.) GRAMMAR, the science which treats of WORDS and of their MUTUAL DEPENDENCE on each other, is divided into Two Parts ; namely,

1. ETYMOLOGY, which treats of the words themselves ; and,
2. SYNTAX, which treats of the words as connected with each other.

I.—ETYMOLOGY.

(2.) CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.—To express our ideas, or the thoughts which may be passing in our minds, we use WORDS.

(3.) Words when joined together, so as to convey a distinct and complete statement, make a SENTENCE.

(4.) The SIMPLEST SENTENCE which we can use, is made up of *the word which names* the subject about which we speak, and of *the word which states* something about the subject.

Thus if I say "rain falls": the *first word names* the subject of which I speak, *the second makes the statement.*

The word "rain" is said to be (5.) a NOUN, because it *is the name of something about which we can speak:* The word "falls" is said (6) to be a VERB, because it *makes a statement.* Every statement which we can make, must be either as to something *being*, or as to some thing *doing: the verb*, therefore, either *expresses being, or doing.*[1]

(7.) If I wish to alter the sentence "rain falls," so as to state *what kind of rain* falls, I must join a word to "rain." Thus in the sentence, "gentle rain falls," I tell what kind of rain falls, that is, I modify or qualify the noun "rain" by joining to it the word "gentle," which is therefore called

An ADJECTIVE, that *is a word joined to a noun to qualify it.*[2]

(8.) If in the sentence, "gentle rain falls," I wish to modify the word "falls," I must join a word to it. Thus in the sentence, "gentle rain often falls," the word "falls" is modified by the word "often," which is therefore called an ADVERB. The same term is applied to words which modify adjectives or other adverbs. Thus when I say, "a very large army was almost entirely destroyed," I modify the adjective "large" by the word "very:" and the adverb "entirely," which modifies the verb "destroyed," is itself modified by the word "almost."

An ADVERB *is* therefore *a word which is joined to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, to modify it.*[3]

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[1] The terms "noun" and "verb" are derived from the Latin *nomen*, a name, and *verbum*, a word.

[2] The term "adjective" is derived from the Latin word *adjectus*, added to.

[3] The term "adverb" is derived from the Latin word *verbum*, a word, and the prefix *ad*, to.

(9.) Should I wish in one sentence to make two or more statements about one subject, I must use some word to connect the verbs which make the statements. Thus, instead of saying "rain falls: rain nourishes trees;" I can say, "rain falls, *and* nourishes trees;" the word "and," which joins the words "falls" and "nourishes," is therefore called a CONJUNCTION. Again, should I wish to state that rain nourishes other things besides trees, as, for example, flowers, I could connect the two nouns, "trees" and "flowers," thus, "rain nourishes trees and flowers." If other examples were taken, we should find that

CONJUNCTIONS *are used to connect words of the same class only:* thus *good* and *bad; up* and *down; eat* and *sleep.*

(10.) If I say "John had an apple or a pear," the word "or" is used to *separate* the noun "apple" from the noun "pear," so as to shew that John had *not both things* but *only one of them.*

Words of this kind may be called DISJUNCTIONS, as they *are used to separate words of the same class:* thus, "not *lost* but *gone* before;" "*gentle* yet *firm.*"[1]

(11.) When we wish to avoid the too frequent repetition of the name of any person or thing, we often use a word to stand instead of the noun which names the person or thing. Thus we do not say "John loves John's sisters, and John's sisters love John," but "John loves *his* sisters, and *they* love *him.*" The words "his," "him," which *stand for* "John," and "they," which *stands for* "John's sisters," are therefore called

PRONOUNS, because they *stand for nouns. Pronouns are also used to stand for the facts expressed by statements, or for parts of sentences.*

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[1] The terms "conjunction" and "disjunction" are derived from the Latin words *conjunctio*, a joining together; and *disjunctio*, a separation.

Thus when I say "he beat me, which was very wrong," the pronoun "which" stands instead of the action expressed by the words "he beat me."[1]

(12.) In the sentence "John sits on a chair," *the relation which subsists* between "John" and "chair," *is shown by the word* "on."

A *word* of this kind, *placed* before the name of anything, that is, *before a noun or a pronoun, to show its relation with some other noun or pronoun*, is called a PREPOSITION.[2]

A preposition has no meaning unless when joined with two names of things. It is not necessary that the preposition should come *between* the names. Thus in the sentence "I know the person *to whom you* spoke," the preposition "to" shows the relation between "whom" and "you."

(13.) When we express our common feelings we employ ordinary sentences, but *when a great or sudden emotion is expressed we use an exclamation.* Thus, if we suffer from illness, we say, "I am sick," or "I feel pain;" but if a sudden or great pain is experienced, an exclamation such as, "Ah!" or "Oh!" is uttered.

Words such as these, *uttered to express great or sudden emotion, are called* INTERJECTIONS.[3]

Interjections are often, as it were, *thrown in* between the words of a statement: as "he arrived, but, alas! too late to be of service."

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[1] The term "pronoun" is composed of the two parts "noun" and "pro," signifying for, instead of.

[2] The term "preposition" is derived from the Latin word *prepositus,* placed before.

[3] The term "interjection" is derived from the Latin word *interjectio,* a throwing in.

(14.) If we examine the words that we use, either in speaking or in writing, we shall find that they are either Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs, Conjunctions, Disjunctions, Pronouns, Prepositions, or Interjections. *These several classes of words, are, therefore, called the* PARTS OF SPEECH.

SUB-DIVISION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

NOUNS.

(15). Nouns which are *names common to every individual of the same class of objects are said to be* COMMON NOUNS.

(16). Nouns which can be used only as *the names of some particular person or thing*, are said to be PROPER NOUNS.

(17). Names for *a number of persons or things taken together or collectively*, are called COLLECTIVE NOUNS.

Thus, the word "*soldier*," which is the name of *every* individual in a certain class, is called a *Common noun*: the word "*John*," which is the name of *one* individual in that class, is called a *Proper noun*: the word "*army*," which is the name of *all* the individuals in that class when *taken together*, is called a *Collective noun*.

ADJECTIVES.

When I say "he had five sweet apples," by using the adjective "five" in connexion with the noun "apples," I tell

the *number* of apples; by using the adjective "sweet" in connexion with the noun "apples," I assign to the apples the *attribute* of sweetness.

(18). *Adjectives,* like five, *which express number, are called* NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

(19). *Adjectives,* like sweet, *which assign attributes to nouns, are called* ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES.

VERBS.

(20.) Verbs were said to *express being* or *doing*, that is, *existence*, or *action.* When we have a noun, and a verb which expresses existence joined with it, the statement made is complete: thus, the words "Rome is," form a complete statement. Some of the verbs which express *doing*, when joined with a noun, also make a complete statement: thus, the words "he laughs," make a perfect statement, *because the action* expressed by the verb "laughs," *does not require an object on which to be performed.*

Verbs, like laugh, *expressing an action that does not pass from the actor to an object, are called* INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

(21). If I say "I punished," the statement is incomplete, because the word "punished" expresses an action which must have been performed upon some person. If I say "I punished Thomas," the statement is complete, because the noun "Thomas" names the person upon whom the punishment was inflicted. The action expressed by the word "punished," *passed from the actor* ("I"), *to the object acted upon* ("Thomas").

Verbs, like punish, *expressing an action which passes from the actor to an object, are called* TRANSITIVE VERBS.

(22). All *verbs that express doing are,* therefore, *either transitive or intransitive. Verbs which express*

being are called NEUTER VERBS, because they express no action.[1]

PRONOUNS.

(23.) In all statements there must be *first*, a person who speaks; *second*, a person spoken to; and *third*, a person or thing spoken of. *When a pronoun indicates for which of these three it stands it is called a* PERSONAL PRONOUN.

Suppose John speaking to Thomas said, "I admire your horse, Thomas; will you sell it to me?" Here "I," "me," indicate that they refer to John, because they *can be used only for the speaker;* "you," "your," indicate that they refer to Thomas, because they *can be used only for the person spoken to;* "it," indicates that it refers to the horse, because it *can be used only for the thing spoken of.* "I," "me," "you," "your," and "it," are therefore called Personal Pronouns.

(24.) A RELATIVE PRONOUN *simply relates to a noun, a pronoun, or a clause, in the same sentence with itself.*

Thus, in the sentence, "I received the letter which you sent;" the pronoun "which" evidently relates to the noun "letter," and is therefore called a Relative Pronoun.

The noun to which the Relative Pronoun relates, is called the CORRELATIVE.

(25.) *A* DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN *points out distinctly or emphatically the noun, pronoun, or statement for which it stands.*

Thus, in the sentence, "This is my slate, but whose book

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[1] The term "transitive" is derived from the Latin word *transio*, I pass over or across: "intransitive" is from the same word and the prefix *in*, not: "neuter" is simply the Latin word for *neither*.

is that?" the pronoun "this" *points* clearly to the noun "slate," and the pronoun "that," to the noun "book;" "this," and "that," are therefore called Demonstrative Pronouns.

(26). *An* INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN *is one which is used with a verb after it to ask a question.*

Thus, in the sentence "who spoke?" the pronoun "who" is used with *the verb* "spoke," *after it*, to ask a question; "who" is therefore called an Interrogative Pronoun.

We have now seen that NOUNS are either *Common, Proper*, or *Collective:* ADJECTIVES are either *Numeral* or *Attributive:* and PRONOUNS are either *Personal, Relative, Demonstrative*, or *Interrogative.*

II.—INFLECTION OF WORDS.

(27). A change made on a word so as slightly to vary its meaning, is called an INFLECTION of the word.

Thus the word *men* is an inflection of the word *man*, from which it is derived; so *grew*, *smaller*, *sooner*, and *these*, are inflections of *grow*, *small*, *soon*, and *this.*

The parts of speech which are inflected in the English language are, the noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, and verb.

CAUSES OF INFLECTION.

(28). Gender.

Every thing of which we can speak either *has* or *has not life.* Nouns, therefore, must be either the names of *animals,* or the names of *things without life.*

All animals either belong to the male or to the female sex; and THE DISTINCTION OF SEX IS CALLED THE GENDER.

According as a noun is the name of a male or of a female, it is said to be of the MASCULINE or the FEMININE GENDER.

Thus, "John," the name of a male, is said to be of the Masculine Gender; "Lady," the name of a female, is said to be of the Feminine Gender.

Things without life are of no sex; and, therefore, the names of things without life, are NEITHER of the masculine nor of the feminine gender. Such nouns are said to be of *neither* or NEUTER GENDER.

Some nouns may be used as the names of animals of *either* sex.

Thus, *a parent* may mean *either a father or a mother.*

Such nouns are said to be of EITHER or COMMON GENDER.

A pronoun has the gender of the noun for which it stands.

Thus, in the sentence, "John gave his book to Mary who asked for it;" the pronoun "his," which stands for *John's,* is of the Masculine Gender, "who," which stands for *Mary,* is of the Feminine Gender, and "it," which stands for *book,* is of Neuter Gender.

Now, we find that to alter the gender of a noun or pronoun, we are obliged to inflect it: For example, the words "lion," and "he," which are of the Masculine Gender, are

changed into the feminines, "lioness," and "she," by inflection.

Gender is therefore a cause of inflection in nouns and pronouns.

(29). NUMBER.

Every noun which we use *either* names *one* object, or *more than one. This distinction of unity, or plurality, is called* NUMBER.

Thus the word "box" names *one* article; "boxes" names *more than one* of the same articles.

A noun which names one object, or a pronoun which stands for such a noun, is said to be in the SINGULAR NUMBER.

A noun which names more than one object, or a pronoun which stands for such a noun, is said to be in the PLURAL NUMBER.

Now, we find that to alter the number of a noun, or pronoun, we require to inflect it. Thus, in order to change the words "this house" into the plural, we require to inflect them, and say "these houses."

Number, therefore, is a cause of inflection in nouns and pronouns.

Again, when the subject of a sentence is changed from a noun or a pronoun in the Singular Number, to one in the Plural, we find that the verb in the sentence requires to be inflected also. Thus we say, "a *man lives*," "*men live*:" "*this grows*," "*these grow*."

Number is, therefore, a cause of inflection in verbs.

(30).—CASE.

In the sentence "John loves Thomas," the word "John" *names the subject of the verb* "loves:" "Thomas" *names the*

object of the verb. "John" and "Thomas" are in different relations to the verb, and are, therefore, said to be in different CASES.

The noun "John," *which names the Subject of the verb, is said to be in the* NOMINATIVE, or NAMING CASE. "Thomas," *the noun which names the Object of the verb, is said to be in the* OBJECTIVE CASE. The *noun* is not inflected to show the distinction between these two cases; for we can use the same form of the noun in the Objective that we use in the Nominative Case.

Thus in the sentence "Thomas struck Peter, and Peter struck Thomas," the nouns "Thomas" and "Peter" are not inflected, though each is used in both cases.

Pronouns, however, are inflected to show the distinction of these two cases.

Thus in the sentence, "He loved them, and they loved him," the Objectives "him" and "them" are inflections of the Nominatives "he" and "they."

If we wish to say that "a hat belongs to John," we may use the words "that is John's hat." Here the form of the word "John's" (an inflection of "John") indicates *a state of ownership* on the part of "John" with regard to the "hat." If I wish to say that it belongs to the individual to whom I am speaking, I might say, "that is *your* hat." The word "your" (an inflection of "you") also indicates ownership. The words "John's" and "your" are said to be in the

POSSESSIVE CASE, that *is, the case which indicates ownership, or possession.* Case, therefore, is a cause of inflection in nouns and pronouns.

(31.) DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

If I have three sweet apples which differ in their degrees of sweetness, I may say, "The first is sweet, the second is

sweeter, and the third is sweetest." The adjective "sweet," from which "sweeter" and "sweetest" are derived, is therefore inflected to show different degrees of sweetness.

Adjectives, like "sweet," which can be inflected to show different degrees of the quality which they express, are said to be COMPARABLE.

The three degrees, called DEGREES OF COMPARISON, are :—

First. The POSITIVE, which *expresses simply the quality*, as belonging to one individual, or class :

As shown by the adjective in the sentence, "Thomas is a strong man."

Second. The COMPARATIVE, which *expresses a greater degree of the quality*, as belonging to one individual, or class, when *compared with one* other individual, or class :

As in the sentence, "Peter is a stronger man than Thomas."

Third. The SUPERLATIVE, which expresses the *greatest degree* of the quality, as belonging to one individual, or class, when *compared with more than one* other individual, or class :

As shown by the adjective in the sentence, "Andrew is the strongest man in the town."

Adverbs also can be compared :

As may be seen in the sentence, "John arrived soon, Julia arrived sooner, and Eliza arrived soonest."

Degrees of Comparison are, therefore, a cause of inflection in adjectives and adverbs.

(32.) Person.

The subject of the verb in a simple sentence is either, 1st. *The person, or persons, speaking; 2nd, the person, or persons, spoken to; or 3rd, the person or persons, or the thing or things, spoken of.*

According as each of these happens to be the case, the verb is said to speak of the *first*, the *second*, or the *third person.*

When the person of the subject is changed, the verb frequently requires to be inflected, as may be seen in the sentence, "I say what thou sayest he says."

Person is, therefore, a cause of inflection in verbs.

(33.) Tense.

In every simple sentence, the verb either indicates *present*, or *past time. The distinction as to time indicated by the verb is called the* Tense. According as a verb indicates present or past time, it is said to be in the Present or Past Tense.

Thus the verbs in the sentence, "he writes what he wrote," are respectively said to be in the present and past tense, and since, in order to show the change of tense, the verb was inflected,

Tense is a cause of inflection in verbs.

(34.) Mood.

The "being, or doing" implied by a verb is often expressed in different ways, or modes.

Thus in the sentence, "When you read, read carefully," the verb "read" is used in two different modes; for the second "read" implies a command, or direction, which the first "read" does not.

The various ways, or modes, in which a verb ex-

presses "being, or doing" are called the MOODS OF THE VERB.

When the form of the verb indicates time only, the verb is said to be in the INDICATIVE MOOD.

Thus the verbs in the sentence, "He writes what I say" simply indicate the time when the "writing" and "saying" were performed, and are therefore said to be in the Indicative Mood.

When the form of the verb indicates doubt, or contingency, as well as time, the verb is said to be in the SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD, because some statement must be joined with the clause in which the verb occurs, so as to make the sentence complete. This mood has generally "if" before it.

Thus the words "if he write," do not convey a complete statement, which every perfect sentence must do; to complete the sentence, therefore, I require to add some words containing a perfect statement, as for example, "I need not write," the sentence as now completed, "I need not write, if he write," is composed of two clauses, the second of which depends for its force entirely upon the first, and is therefore called a *secondary clause;* the first clause is the *principal clause.* The word "write" in the secondary clause is in the Subjunctive Mood, because it indicates doubt or contingency.

When the verb implies that the speaker is giving a command to some one, or is making a request, it is said to be in the IMPERATIVE MOOD.

As, in the sentence, "write to John."

When the verb neither indicates time, contingency, nor command, it is said to be in the INFINITIVE MOOD.

This mood, which is the simplest form of the verb, has generally "to" before it. *When the word "to" comes be-*

fore this mood, it is called the Sign of the Infinitive. The infinitive mood cannot, with a noun or pronoun, make a sentence: thus, the words "I to write," do not convey any statement; a verb must, therefore, be placed with "I," in order to make the sentence complete: thus, "I wish to write."

THE PARTICIPLES are parts of the verb which *denote the continuance* or *the completion* of the "being or doing" expressed by the verb.

That which denotes the continuance is called the PRESENT PARTICIPLE. Example: he is *living*.

That which denotes the completion is called the PAST PARTICIPLE. Example: the letter is *written*.

The term "participle" is used because this part of the verb partakes of the nature of the adjective: thus, in the examples just given, "living" may be said to qualify "he;" and "written," to qualify "letter."

The inflections of the verb for number, person, tense, and mood, are exemplified at pages 25–27.

INFLECTION OF NOUNS.

(35). The causes of inflection in Nouns are Gender, Number, and Case.

MODES OF INFLECTION FOR GENDER.—I. Names of males are frequently changed into names of females, by the addition of a syllable to the masculine noun, or by altering its termination. Examples:

Masculine.	*Feminine*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Peer	peeress	testator	testatrix
Sultan	sultana	hero	heroine
Actor	actress	lad	lass

II. Nouns which do not indicate gender distinctly, are sometimes made to do so, by joining to them a word to indicate the sex intended. Examples:

Common Gender.	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Bear	he-bear	she-bear
Servant	man-servant	maid-servant

The names of male and female animals of the same species are often entirely different words; the gender in this case is not shown by inflection. Examples:

Masculine	Boy	bull	cock	milter
Feminine	Girl	cow	hen	spawner.

When things without life are spoken of as if they were persons, they are said to be *personified*, and sex is assigned to them. When this is the case, *things* which are *remarkable for strength, greatness, or other qualities generally belonging to males*, are usually spoken of as *males; things remarkable for beauty, gentleness, or other qualities generally belonging to females*, are usually spoken of as *females;* thus, the *sun* is often spoken of as if it were a *male;* and the *moon*, as if it were a *female.*

(36). Modes of Inflection for Number.—I. When the singular ends in a sound with which that of *s* or *z* can easily be joined, the plural is formed from the singular by adding the sound of *s* or *z* only. In this case there is no increase in the number of syllables. Examples:

Singular	Book	slate	lad
Plural	Books	slates	lads

II. When the singular ends in a sound with which that of *s* or *z* cannot easily be joined, the plural is

formed by adding the sound of *es*, which forms a separate syllable. Examples :

Singular	Church	slice	fox
Plural	Churches	slices	foxes

To these two rules there are many exceptions. Examples :

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Man	men	mouse	mice
Goose	geese	thief	thieves
Phenomenon	phenomena		

(37). MODES OF INFLECTION FOR CASE.—I. The *possessive singular* is formed from the nominative, by adding *'s* (apostrophe *s*). Example : brother, brother's.

II. The *possessive plural* is formed from the nominative plural, when it ends in *s*, by adding ' only ; but when the nominative does not end in *s*, the possessive is formed by adding *'s*. Examples :

Nom.	Brothers	brethren
Pos.	Brothers'	brethren's

The regular arrangement of the various inflections of any part of speech, is called its DECLENSION.

DECLENSION OF A NOUN.

	Masculine Actor.		*Feminine* Actress.	
	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	Actor	actors	Actress	actresses
Poss.	Actor's	actors'	Actress's	actresses'
Object.	Actor	actors	Actress	actresses

(38.) INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

Adjectives and Adverbs are only inflected for Degrees of Comparison.

Mode of Inflection. The *Comparative* degree is formed by adding the sound of *er*, and the *Superlative*, by adding that of *est* to the Positive. Ex. :—

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Sweet	sweeter	sweetest
High	higher	highest
Hot	hotter	hottest
Soon	sooner	soonest

Many adjectives and adverbs which cannot be compared by inflection, are compared irregularly. Ex. :—

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good or well	better	best
Bad	worse	worst
Much or Many	more	most
Little	less	least

(39). INFLECTION OF PRONOUNS.

The causes of inflection in pronouns are, Number, Gender, and Case. Pronouns are distinguished by Person also; but this is not a cause of their inflection, since to alter the person of the pronoun, we require to change the word entirely.

Ex.: *Nom. Sing.*, 1*st Person*, I. 2*d Person*, Thou. 3*d Person*, He, She or It.

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

Personal Pronouns.

First Personal Pronoun.

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	I	we
Posses.	My or mine	our or ours
Object.	Me	us

Second Personal Pronoun.

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	Thou	ye or you
Posses.	Thy or thine	your or yours
Object.	Thee	you

Note.—Since the person speaking, or the person addressed, may be either a male or a female, the first and second personal pronouns are of Common Gender.

Third Personal Pronoun.

	Singular.			Plural.
	Masc.	*Fem.*	*Neut.*	*All Genders.*
Nom.	He	she	it	they
Posses.	His	her or hers	its	their or theirs
Object.	Him	her	it	them

Note.—When the personal pronoun is intended to be used emphatically, or when we wish to show that an action is performed upon the agent, some part of the simple personal pronoun is *compounded* with the word *self*, or the plural *selves*. Thus we say, "*I myself* said so." "*He* hurt *himself*."

DECLENSION OF THE COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

There is no inflection for Case, the Nominative and Objective being alike, and the Possessive, wanting.

First Person.	*Second.*	*Third.*
Sing. Myself	thyself	himself, herself, itself
Plur. Ourselves	yourselves	themselves

DECLENSION OF RELATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, AND DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Singular and Plural.

Masc. and Fem.		*Neuter.*
Nom.	Who	which
Posses.	Whose	whose [1]
Object.	Whom	which

The Pronouns *that* and *what* are not inflected.

(40). INFLECTION OF THE VERB.

The causes of inflection in verbs are, Person, Number, Tense, and Mood. The Infinitive is that part from which all the others are supposed to be derived. The *principal parts* of the verb are, *the first person singular of the Present*, and *the first person singular of the Past Tense of the Indicative Mood*, and *the Past Participle*. When these are named in order, the verb is said to be CONJUGATED. Verbs which are *conjugated regularly*, have their Past Tense and Passive Participle formed from the Infinitive, by the addition of *ed*.

Ex: *Inf.*, Walk. *P. Tense*, Walked. *P. Part.*, Walked.

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[1] This possessive case is objected to by some grammarians, though it is often used by many of the best writers.

Verbs which are conjugated in any other manner, are said to be *Irregular*.

Ex.: *Inf.*, Write. *P. Tense*, Wrote. *P. Part.*, Written.

Verbs which want any of the *principal parts*, are said to be *Defective*.

Thus the verb *can* has neither infinitive nor participle. Hence we can neither say, "I wish *to can*," nor "I wish to have *could*."

When we wish to express time very distinctly, we sometimes join two or more verbs together:

Thus, instead of saying "I speak," we may say "I am speaking;" and instead of "I spoke," we may say, "I was speaking," or "I have spoken."

A verb joined to another to express time more distinctly, is called an Auxiliary Verb, or a Helping Verb. Ex.: *be, have.*

Future Time is expressed by joining the verbs *shall* or *will*, with another verb. Thus, if I wish to express the fact that I intend to write at some future time, I say "I shall write."

DECLENSION OF A REGULAR VERB.

Conj., *Inf.*, Walk. *Past Tense*, Walked. *P. Part.*, Walked.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	Present.		*Past.*	
	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1st *Pers.*	Walk	walk	1. walked	walked
2d	Walkest	walk	2. walkedst	walked
3d	Walks	walk	3. walked	walked

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.	*Past.*
Walk	walked.

Not inflected for Number or Person.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Second Pers. Sing. and Plural, Walk.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Walking. *Past.* Walked.

DECLENSION OF AN IRREGULAR VERB.

CONJ. *Infin.* Write. *P. Tense,* Wrote. *P. Part.* Written.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	Present.		*Past.*	
	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1.	Write	write	wrote	wrote
2.	Writest	write	wrotest	wrote
3.	Writes	write	wrote	wrote

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Not inflected for person or number.

Present, Write. *Past.* Wrote.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Second Pers. Sing. and Plural, Write.

PARTICIPLES, *Present,* Writing *Past,* Written

DECLENSION OF THE VERB *TO BE.*

Conj. *Inf.* Be. *Present,* Am. *Past.* Was. *P. Part.* Been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.		*Past.*	
Sing.	*Plural.*	*Sing.*	*Plural.*
1. Am	are	was	were
3. Art	are	wast or wert	were
3. Is	are	was	were

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present, Be *Past,* Were

The second person sing. of the past. is *wert:* otherwise this mood is not inflected for number or person.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Second Pers. Sing. and Plur. Be

Participles, *Present,* Being *Past,* Been

DECLENSION OF THE DEFECTIVE VERB *CAN.*

Conj. *Inf. Wanting.* *Present,* Can. *Past,* Could.
P. Part, Wanting.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.		*Past.*	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Past.*
1. Can	can	could	could
2. Canst	can	couldst	could
3. Can	can	could	could

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present, Can *Past*, Could.
Rest wanting.

(41.) Use of the verbs *shall* and *will*.

These verbs are employed not only to indicate *simple* futurity, but also futurity depending upon the *determination of the speaker*. The peculiar manner in which these two kinds of futurity are expressed, is as follows :—

To indicate simple futurity, we say,

1. I shall	we shall
2. Thou wilt	you will
3. He will	they will

To indicate futurity, depending on the determination of the speaker, we say,

1. I will	we will
2. Thou shalt	you shall
2. He shall	they shall

II.—SYNTAX.

Rules for determining the Cases of Nouns and Pronouns.

(42.) Nominative Case.—I. Every noun or pronoun which is the *subject* of a verb must be in the nominative case.

Explanation.—Thus we do not say, "*Peter's* eats;" "*us* walk;" but "*Peter* eats;" "*we* walk."

(43.) II. A noun or pronoun, whose case is not governed by another word, must be in the nominative case. The noun or pronoun is then said to be in the *nominative case absolute.*

Expl.—Thus we do not say "Him falling sick, we could not proceed," but "*he* falling sick," etc.

(44.) Possessive Case.—When two nouns, or a pronoun and a noun come together, and are used to indicate the owner and the thing possessed, the word indicating the owner is put in the possessive case.

Expl.—Thus we do not say, "This is *Peter* hat, and that is *ye* bonnet;" but "this is *Peter's* hat, and that is *your* bonnet."

The name of the thing possessed is frequently omitted.

Thus we can say, "The dome of St Paul's," meaning, "the dome of St Paul's Cathedral."

When, after a personal pronoun, the name of the thing possessed is omitted,—the possessive cases, mine, thine, ours, yours, and theirs, are employed.

Thus we say, "Those books are mine, or thine, or ours, or yours, or theirs."

If the name of the possessor consists of more than one word, the sign of the possessive case is affixed to the last word only.

Examp.—Robert the Bruce's courage; Napoleon the Third's visit; William and Mary's reign.

(45.) Objective Case.—I. Every noun or pro-

noun which is the *object* of a transitive verb, must be in the objective case.

Expl.—Thus we do not say, "I saw *he* writing a *letter's*;" but "I saw *him* writing a *letter*."

(46.) II. When a noun or pronoun is connected by a preposition with another noun or a personal pronoun, that which follows the preposition must be in the objective case.

Expl.—Thus we do not say, "John spoke to *I* in *Edinburgh's*;" but "John spoke *to me* in *Edinburgh*."

(47). All Cases.—I. A noun or a personal pronoun following another noun or personal pronoun, for the purpose of explaining it, must be in the same case with it.

Expl.—Thus we do not say, "*He*, James *Pryde's*, spoke to *me*, the *gardener's*;" but "*He*, James *Pryde*, spoke to *me*, the *gardener*."

(48). II. The noun or pronoun used in answering a question, must be in the same case as the interrogative pronoun used in asking it.

Expl.—Thus in answering the question "Who spoke?" we ought not to say "me," but "I," the pronoun "who" being in the nominative case.

(49). III. A noun or pronoun following the verb *to be*, must be in the same case with the noun or pronoun which precedes the verb.

Expl.—Thus we do not say "*Who* are *your?*" but "*Who* are *you?*"

(50). Nouns or pronouns connected by conjunc-

tions, or separated by disjunctions, must be in the same case.

EXPL.—Thus we do not say, "*Julia* or *her* spoke to *John* and *I*," but "*Julia* or *she* spoke to *John* and *me*."

(51). GENDER.—A pronoun must agree in gender with the noun for which it stands.

EXPL.—Thus we do not say, "Look at the *letter* and see what are *her* contents," but "look at the *letter* and see what are *its* contents."

(52). PERSON.—I. A pronoun must agree in person with the noun for which it stands.

EXPL.—Thus we do not say, "I know the *man who am* there," or "*who art* there," but "I know the *man who is* there;" because, if we use the word *am*, it would show that *who* is in the *first* person; and if we use *art*, then *who* is in the *second* person; but we say "*who is* there," because *who* refers to *man*, and must be in the *third* person, as it refers to something *spoken of*.

(53). II. When the names for which a pronoun stands are in different persons, the pronoun must be used in the first person rather than in the second, and in the second rather than in the third.

EXPL.—Thus we do not say, "*You* and *John* have been so idle that *they* must both be punished;" but, "*you* and *John* have been so idle that *you* must both be punished;" where the word *you* includes both *John* and the *person addressed*.

(54). III. A verb must agree with its nominative in person.

EXPL.—Thus we do not say, "*I is*," "*thou am*," "*he art*," but "*I am*," "*thou art*," "*he is*."

(55). NUMBER.—I. A pronoun must agree in

number with the noun for which it stands; and when a pronoun stands for more than one noun at once, the pronoun must be used in the plural.

Expl.—Thus we say, "*Jane* went to the Exhibition with *Thomas and James; she* was much pleased, though *they* were dissatisfied;" where *she* is in the singular to agree with *Jane*, and *they* in the plural to agree with *Thomas and James.*

(56.) II. A verb must agree in number with its nominative; and where the verb has more than one nominative, the verb must be in the plural number.

Expl.—Thus we do not say, "*Jane are* in the country, while *John and Robert remains* in town;" but "*Jane is* in the country, while *John and Robert remain* in town."

(57.) III. A verb, or pronoun, agreeing with a collective noun, must be in the singular or the plural, according as the idea of *unity* or that of *plurality* is implied by the noun.

Expl.—Thus we say "the *committee is* a large one," when we speak of the committee as *one body* of men; and we say, "the *committee differ* in opinion," when we speak of the committee as composed of a *a number of men*, who separately express their opinions.

(58.) Note.—Some words require certain others to be used after them.

Examp.—*Both* requires *and* after it; either, or; neither, nor; whether, or; though, yet; such, as; as, as; as, so; so, as; so, that; other, than; and adjectives in the comparative degree require *than* after them. Thus we say, "*Both* Thomas *and* I;" "*either* Thomas *or* I;" "*neither* Thomas *nor* I;" "*whether* false *or* not:" "*though* strange *yet* true;" "*such* men *as* you;" "*as* soon *as;*" "*as* I write, *so* they print;" "*so* fortunate *as* to escape;" *so* diligent *that* he was rewarded;" "no *other than* he;" "*worse than* ever."

List of Verbs Conjugated Irregularly.

Abide, be, bear, beat, begin, bend, beseech, beware, bid, bind, bite, bleed, blow, break, breed, bring, build, burst, buy, can, cast, catch, chid, choose, cleave, cling, clothe, come, cost, crow, creep, cut, dare, deal, dig, do, draw, dream, drive, drink, dwell, eat, fall, feed, feel, fight, find, flee, fling, fly, forsake, freeze, get, gild, gird, give, go, grave, grind, grow, hang, have, hear, heave, hew, hide, hit, hold, hurt, keep, kneel, knit, know, lay, lean, lead, leave, lend, let, lie, light, load, lose, make, may, mean, meet, mow, must, ought, pay, put, quit, quoth, read, reave, rend, rid, ride, ring, rise, rive, run, saw, say, see, seek, seethe, sell, send, set, shake, shall, shave, shear, shed, shine, shoe, show, shoot, shut, shred, shrink, sing, sink, sit, slay, sleep, slide, sling, slink, slit, smite, sow, speak, speed, spend, spill, spin, spit, split, spread, spring, stand, steal, slink, sting, strew, stride, strike, string, strive, strow, swear, sweat, sweep, swell, swim, swing, take, teach, tear, tell, think, thrive, throw, thrust, tread, wake, wear, weave, weep, win, wind, work, wring, write.

Parsing.

A sentence is said to be *parsed*, when the various words of which it is composed are considered as parts of speech, and their inflections and mutual dependence are pointed out.

Manner of Parsing a Sentence.

Sentence.—"Your ship sailed with a fair wind, and at the most favourable season, but, alas! it was never again seen."

Your—Pronoun, because it stands for the name of some person; 2d personal, because it indicates that it stands for the person spoken to; singular or plural, because

used either for *one* or *more than one;* common gend., because it may stand either for male or female; possessive case, because ownership with regard to "ship" is indicated.

Ship—Common noun, because, a name common to a great many objects of the same kind; sing., because it indicates *one* only; neuter, because, the name of a thing without life; nominative to verb "sailed," because ship is the subject of the verb.

Sailed—Verb, because it indicates *doing;* regular, because it is conjugated thus, sail, sailed, sailed; transitive, because the action expressed by the verb may pass from agent to object,—Ex.: "he sailed his ship;" past tense, because it indicates something having been done; indic. mood, because time only is indicated; sing., to agree with "ship; 3d person, because the subject of "sailed," is spoken of.

With—Preposition, because placed before "wind" to show its relation to "ship."

A—Numeral adj., because it indicates number, and qualifies "wind."

Fair—Attrib. adj, because it attributes *fairness* to "wind;" *pos.* fair, *comp.* fairer, *sup.* fairest.

Wind—Com. noun, because, a name common to many objects; sing., because it indicates *one* only; neuter, because, the name of something without life; objective, because it follows "with" and shows the *object "with"* which the ship sailed.

And—Conj., because it couples "fair" and "favourable," or "wind" and "season:" better to choose the last two, because "fair" and "favourable" are only the qualifying words of "wind" and "season."

At—Prep., because placed before "season" to show its relation to "ship."

The—Adj., because it qualifies "season."

Most—Adv., beeause it qualifies "favourable;" *pos. wanting, comp.* more, *sup.* most.

Favourable—Adj., because it qualifies the noun "season," not compared by inflection.

Season—Com. noun, because, a name common to many objects; sing., because it indicates *one* only; neuter, be-

cause, the name of a thing without life; object., because it follows the preposition "at," etc.

But,—Disjunct., because it separates "ship sailed" and "it was," or, the two nouns and the two verbs.

Alas!—Interject., because it expresses sudden sorrow.

It—Pron., because it stands for "ship;" 3d person, because it indicates that it stands for something spoken of; sing., because it indicates *one* only; neuter, because it stands for a thing without life; nom. to "was," because it is the subject of that verb.

Was—Neuter verb, because it signifies *being*; irreg., because, etc.; auxil., because joined with verb "seen;" past tense, because, etc.; indic. mood, because, etc.; 3d person sing., to agree with the noun "it;" *inf.* be, *past* was, *past part.* been.

Never—Adv., because it qualifies "seen;" in compar.

Again—Adv., because it qualifies "seen:" in compar.

Seen.—Verb, because it signifies *doing;* irreg., because conj., thus, see, saw, seen; trans., because, etc.; past part., because it qualifies "it."

THE END.

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15